

# Extended envelopes around Galactic Cepheids III. Y Oph and $\alpha$ Per from near-infrared interferometry with CHARA/FLUOR

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## ABSTRACT

Unbiased angular diameter measurements are required for accurate distances to Cepheids using the interferometric Baade Wesselink method (IBWM). The precision of this technique is currently limited by interferometric measurements at the 1.5% level. At this level, the center-to-limb darkening (CLD) and the presence of circumstellar envelopes (CSE) seem to be the two main sources of bias. The observations we performed aim at improving our knowledge of the interferometric visibility profile of Cepheids. In particular, we assess the systematic presence of CSE around Cepheids in order to determine accurate distances with the IBWM free from CSE biased angular diameters. We observed a Cepheid (Y Oph) for which the pulsation is well resolved and a non-pulsating yellow supergiant ( $\alpha$  Per) using long-baseline near-infrared interferometry. We interpreted these data using a simple CSE model we previously developed. We found that our observations of  $\alpha$  Per do not provide evidence for a CSE. The measured CLD is explained by an hydrostatic photospheric model. Our observations of Y Oph, when compared

to smaller baseline measurements, suggest that it is surrounded by a CSE with similar characteristics to CSE found previously around other Cepheids. We have determined the distance to Y Oph to be  $d = 491 \pm 18$  pc. Additional evidence points toward the conclusion that most Cepheids are surrounded by faint CSE, detected by near infrared interferometry: after observing four Cepheids, all show evidence for a CSE. Our CSE non-detection around a non-pulsating supergiant in the instability strip,  $\alpha$  Per, provides confidence in the detection technique and suggests a pulsation driven mass-loss mechanism for the Cepheids.

*Subject headings:* stars: variables: Cepheid - stars: circumstellar matter - stars: individual (Y Oph) - stars: individual ( $\alpha$  Per) - techniques: interferometric

## 1. Introduction

In our two previous papers, (Kervella et al. 2006; Mérand et al. 2006b), hereafter Paper I and Paper II, we reported the discovery of faint circumstellar envelopes (CSE) around Galactic classical Cepheids. Interestingly, all the Cepheids we observed ( $\ell$  Car in Paper I,  $\alpha$  UMi, and  $\delta$  Cep in Paper II) were found to harbor CSE with similar characteristics: a CSE 3 to 4 times larger than the star which accounts for a few percent of the total flux in the infrared  $K$  band. The presence of CSE was discovered in our attempt to improve our knowledge of Cepheids in the context of distance determination via the interferometric Baade-Wesselink method (IBWM). Part of the method requires the measurement of the angular diameter variation of the star during its pulsation. The determination of the angular diameters from sparse interferometric measurements is not straightforward because optical interferometers gather high angular resolution data only at a few baselines at a time, thus good phase and angular resolution coverage cannot be achieved in a short time. For Cepheids, the main uncertainty in the IBWM was thought to be the center-to-limb darkening (CLD), which biases the interferometric angular diameter measurements (Marengo et al. 2004).

The direct measurement of CLD is possible using an optical interferometer, given sufficient angular resolution and precision. Among current optical interferometers, CHARA/FLUOR (ten Brummelaar et al. 2005; Mérand et al. 2006a) is one of the few capable of such a measurement for Cepheids. The only Cepheid accessible to CHARA/FLUOR, i.e. large enough in angular diameter, for such a measurement is Polaris ( $\alpha$  UMi), which we observed and found to have a CLD compatible with hydrostatic photospheric models, though surrounded by a CSE (Paper II). Polaris, however, is a very low amplitude pulsation Cepheid: 0.4% in diameter, compared to 15 to 20% for type I Cepheids (Moskalik & Gorynya 2005), thus the agreement is not necessarily expected for large amplitude Cepheids, whose photospheres

are more out of equilibrium. The direct measurement of CLD of a high amplitude Cepheid during its pulsation phase remains to be performed.

Hydrodynamic simulations (Marengo et al. 2003) suggest that the CLD variations during the pulsation do not account for more than a 0.2% bias in distance determination in the near infrared using the IBWM, where most of the IBWM observing work has been done in recent years: the best formal distance determination to date using the IBWM is of the order of 1.5% (Mérand et al. 2005b).

Whereas the near infrared IBWM seems to be relatively immune to bias from CLD, the recent discovery of CSEs raises the issue of possible bias in angular diameter measurements, hence bias in distance estimations at the 10% level (Paper II). It is therefore important to continue the study of CSE around Cepheids. We present here interferometric observations of the non-pulsating supergiant  $\alpha$  Per and the low amplitude Cepheid Y Oph. We obtained these results in the near infrared  $K$ -band, using the Fiber Linked Unit for Optical Recombination — FLUOR — (Mérand et al. 2006a), installed at Georgia State University’s Center for High Angular Resolution Astronomy (CHARA) Array located on Mount Wilson, California (ten Brummelaar et al. 2005).

## 2. The low amplitude Cepheid Y Oph

In the General Catalog of Variable Stars (Kholopov et al. 1998), Y Oph is classified in the DCEPS category, i.e. low amplitude Cepheids with almost symmetrical light curves and with periods less than 7 days. The GCVS definition adds that DCEPS are first overtone and/or crossing the instability strip for the first time. A decrease in photometric variation amplitude over time has been measured, as well as a period change (Ferne et al. 1995b). Using this period change rate,  $7.2 \pm 1.5 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and the period of 17.1207 days, the star can be identified as crossing the instability strip for the third time, according to models (Turner et al. 2006).

The fact that Y Oph belongs to the DCEPS category is questionable: its period is longer than 7 days, by almost three times, though its light curve is quasi-symmetric and with a low amplitude compared to other type I Cepheids of similar periods (Vinko et al. 1998). Indeed, Y Oph is almost equally referred to in publications as being a fundamental-mode Cepheid or a first overtone.

In this context, a direct determination of the linear diameter can settle whether Y Oph belongs to the fundamental mode group or not. This is of prime importance: because of its brightness and the large amount of observational data available, Y Oph is often used to calibrate the Period-Luminosity (PL) or the Period-Radius (PR) relations. The interferometric

Baade-Wesselink method offers this opportunity to geometrically measure the average linear radius of pulsating stars: if Y Oph is not a fundamental pulsator, its average linear diameter should depart from the classical PR relation.

## 2.1. Interferometric observations

The direct detection of angular diameter variations of a pulsating star has been achieved for many stars now using optical interferometers (Lane et al. 2000; Kervella et al. 2004a; Mérand et al. 2005b). We showed (Mérand et al. 2006b) that for a given average diameter, one should use a baseline that maximizes the amplification factor between the variation in angular diameter and observed squared visibility. This baseline provides an angular resolution of the order of  $B\theta/\lambda \approx 1$ , in other words in the first lobe, just before the first minimum ( $B\theta/\lambda \approx 1.22$  for a uniform disk model), where  $B$  is the baseline (in meters),  $\theta$  the angular diameter (in radians) and  $\lambda$  the wavelength of observation (in meters). According to previous interferometric measurements (Kervella et al. 2004a), the average angular diameter of Y Oph is of the order of 1.45 mas (milli arcsecond).

Ideally, that would mean using a baseline of the order of 300 m, which is available at the CHARA Array. Because of a trade we made with other observing programs, we used only a 250 m baseline provided by telescopes S1 and E2.

The fringes squared visibility is estimated using the integration of the fringes power spectrum. A full description of the algorithm can be found in Coude Du Foresto et al. (1997) and Mérand et al. (2006a).

The raw squared visibilities have been calibrated using resolved calibrator stars, chosen from a specific catalog (Mérand et al. 2005a) using criteria defined to minimize the calibration bias and maximize signal to noise. The error introduced by the uncertainty on each calibrator’s estimated angular diameter has been properly propagated. Among the three main calibrators (Tab. 1), one, HR 6639, turned out to be inconsistent with the others. The raw visibility of this star was found to vary too much to be consistent with the expected statistical dispersion. The quantity to calibrate, the interferometric efficiency (also called instrument visibility), is very stable for an instrument using single mode fibers, such as FLUOR. If this quantity is assumed to be constant over a long period of time, and if observations of a given simple star are performed several times during this period, one can check whether or not the variation of the raw visibilities with respect to the projected baseline is consistent with a uniform disk model. Doing so, HR 6639 was found inconsistent with the other stars observed during the same night (Fig 1). The inconsistency may be explained

by the presence of a faint companion with a magnitude difference of 3 or 4 with respect to the primary. Two over calibrators, from another program, were also used as check stars: HR 7809 and  $\rho$  Aql (Tab. 1). This latter calibrator is not part of the catalog by Mérand et al. (2005a). Its angular diameter has been determined using the Kervella et al. (2004b) surface brightness calibration applied to published photometric data in the visible and near infrared.

For each night we observed Y Oph, we determined a uniform disk diameter (Tab. 3) based on several squared visibility measurements (Tab. 2). Each night was assigned a unique pulsation phase established using the average date of observation and the Fernie et al. (1995b) ephemeris, including the measured period change:

$$D = JD - 2440007.720 \quad (1)$$

$$E = 0.05839D - 3.865 \times 10^{-10}D^2 \quad (2)$$

$$P = 17.12507 + 3.88 \times 10^{-6}E \quad (3)$$

where  $E$  is the epoch is the epoch of maximum light (the fractional part is the pulsation phase) and  $P$  the period at this epoch.

## 2.2. Pulsation

### 2.2.1. Radial Velocity integration

In order to measure the distance to a pulsating star, the IBWM makes use of radial velocities and angular diameters. The latter is the integral other time of the former. The radial velocities, which have been acquired at irregular intervals during the pulsation phase, must be numerically integrated. This process is highly sensitive to noisy data and the best way to achieve a robust integration is to interpolate the data before integration. For this purpose, we use a periodic cubic spline function, defined by floating nodes (Fig. 2). The coordinates of these nodes are adjusted such that the cubic spline function going through these nodes provides the best fit to the data points. The phase positions  $\phi_i$  of these nodes are forced to be between 0 and 1, but they are replicated every  $\phi_i + n$ , where  $n$  is an integer, in order to obtain a periodic function of period 1.

Among published Y Oph radial velocities data, we chose Gorynya et al. (1998) because of the uniform phase coverage and the algorithm used to extract radial velocities: the cross-correlation method. As shown by Nardetto et al. (2004), the method used can influence the distance determination *via* the choice of the so-called projection factor, which we shall introduce in the following section. The pulsation phases have been also determined using Eq. 2.

The data presented by Gorynya et al. (1998) were acquired between June 1996 and August 1997. As we already mentioned, Y Oph is known for its changing period and photometric amplitude. Based on Fernie et al. (1995b), the decrease in amplitude observed for the photometric B and V bands does not have a measurable counterpart in radial velocity. This is why we did not apply any correction in amplitude to the radial velocity data in order to take into account the ten years between the spectroscopic and interferometric measurements.

### 2.2.2. Distance determination method

Once radial velocities  $v_{\text{rad}}$  are interpolated (Fig. 2) and integrated, the distance  $d$  is determined by fitting the radial displacement to the measured angular diameters (Fig. 3):

$$\theta_{\text{UD}}(T) - \theta_{\text{UD}}(0) = -2\frac{kp}{d} \int_0^T v_{\text{rad}}(t) dt \quad (4)$$

where  $\theta_{\text{UD}}$  is the interferometric uniform disk diameter, and  $k$  is defined as the ratio between  $\theta_{\text{UD}}$  and the true stellar angular diameter. The projection factor,  $p$ , is the ratio between the pulsation velocity and the spectroscopically measured radial velocity. The actual parameters of the fit are the average angular diameter  $\theta_{\text{UD}}(0)$  and the biased distance  $\frac{d}{kp}$ .

This formalism assumes that both  $k$  and  $p$  do not vary during the pulsation. There is evidence that this might be true for  $k$ , based on hydrodynamic simulation (Marengo et al. 2003), at the 0.2% level. Observational evidence exists as well: when we measured the  $p$ -factor of  $\delta$  Cep (Mérand et al. 2005b) we did not find any difference between the shapes of the left and right parts of Eq. 4, therefore  $kp$  is probably constant other a pulsation period, at least at the level of precision we have available.

For this work, we will adopt the value for  $p$  we determined observationally for near infrared interferometry/ cross correlation radial velocity:  $p = 1.27$ . This result has been established for  $\delta$  Cep (Mérand et al. 2005b). This is also the latest value computed from hydrodynamical photospheric models (Nardetto et al. 2004). The IBWM fit yields a biased distance  $d/k = 480 \pm 18$  pc and an average angular uniform disk diameter  $\theta_{\text{UD}}(0) = 1.314 \pm 0.005$  mas. Note that we had to allow a phase shift between interferometric and radial velocity observations:  $-0.074 \pm 0.005$  (Fig. 3). The final reduced  $\chi^2$  is of the order of 3, mostly due to one data point ( $\phi = 0.887$ ).

### 2.2.3. Choice of $k$

Usually, the choice of  $k$  is made assuming the star is a limb-darkened disk. The strength of the CLD is computed using photospheric models, then a value of  $k$  is computed. This approach is sometimes confusing because, even for a simple limb darkened disk, there is no unique value of  $k$ , in the sense that this value varies with respect to angular resolution. The uniform disk angular size depends upon which portion of the visibility curve is measured. However, it is mostly unambiguous in the first lobe of visibility, i.e. at moderate angular resolution:  $B\theta/\lambda \leq 1$ .

However, as shown in Paper II, the presence of a faint CSE around Cepheids biases  $k$  up to 10%, particularly when the angular resolution is moderate and the star is not well resolved ( $V^2 \sim 0.5$ ). Under these conditions, the CSE is largely resolved, leading to a strong bias if the CSE is omitted. On the other hand, at greater angular resolution ( $B\theta/\lambda \sim 1$ ), the star is fully resolved ( $V^2$  approaches its first null) and the bias from the CSE is minimized. In any cases, it is critical to determine whether or not Y Oph is surrounded by a CSE if an accurate distance is to be derived.

## 2.3. Interferometric evidence of a CSE around Y Oph

We propose here to compare the uniform disk diameters obtained by VLTI/VINCI (Kervella et al. 2004a) and CHARA/FLUOR (this work). This makes sense because these two instruments are very similar. Both observe in the near infrared  $K$ -band. Moreover, both instruments observed Y Oph in the first lobe of the visibility profile, though at different baselines.

If Y Oph is truly a uniform disk, or even a limb-darkened disk, the two instruments should give similar results. That is because the star’s first lobe of squared visibility is insensitive to the CLD and only dependent on the size. Conversely, if Y Oph is surrounded by a CSE, we expect a visibility deficit at smaller baseline (VLTI/VINCI), hence a larger apparent uniform disk diameter (see Fig. 5). This is because the CSE is fully resolved at baselines which barely resolve the star.

This is indeed the case, as seen on Fig. 4: VLTI/VINCI UD diameters are larger than CHARA/FLUOR’s. Even if the angular resolution of VLTI/VINCI is smaller than for CHARA/FLUOR, leading to less precise angular diameter estimations, the disagreement is still statistically significant, of the order of 3 sigmas. Using the CSE model we can predict the correct differential UD size between the two instruments, consistent with the presence of a CSE around Y Oph. The amount of discrepancy can be used to estimate the flux ra-

tio between the CSE and the star. In the case of Y Oph, we find that the CSE amounts for  $5 \pm 2\%$  of the stellar flux. Note that for this comparison, we recomputed the phase of VLTI/VINCI data using Fernie et al. (1995b) ephemeris presented in Eq. 2.

In Fig. 5, we plot  $k$  as a function of the observed squared visibility for different models: hydrostatic CLD, 2% CSE and 5% CSE ( $K$ -Band flux ratio). For the hydrostatic model we have  $k = 0.983$ . For the 5% CSE models, for CHARA/FLUOR ( $0.20 < V^2 < 0.35$ ),  $\theta_{\text{UD}}/\theta_{\star} = 1.023$ . This is the value we shall adopt. If we ignore the presence of the CSE, the bias introduced is  $1.023/0.983 \approx 1.04$ , or 4%.

## 2.4. Unbiased distance and linear radius

This presence of a 5% CSE leads to an unbiased distance of  $d = 491 \pm 18$  pc, which corresponds to a 3.5% uncertainty on the distance. This is to be compared with the bias we corrected for if one omits the CSE, of the order of 4%. Ignoring the CSE leads to a distance of  $d = 472 \pm 18$  pc

We note that  $k$  biases only the distance, so one can form the following quantity:  $[\theta_{\text{UD}}(0)] \times [d/k]$ , which is the product of the two adjusted parameters in the fit, both biased. This quantity is by definition the linear diameter of the star, and does not depend on the factor  $k$ , even if it is still biased by the choice of  $p$ . If  $\theta$  is in mas and  $d$  in parsecs, then the average linear radius in solar radii is:  $R = 0.1075\theta d$ . In the case of Y Oph, this leads to  $R = 67.8 \pm 2.5 R_{\odot}$ .

## 2.5. Conclusion

Y Oph appears larger (over 2 sigma) in the infrared  $K$ -band at a 140 m baseline compared to a 230 m baseline. Using a model of a star surrounded by a CSE we developed based on observations of other Cepheids, this disagreement is explained both qualitatively and quantitatively by a CSE accounting of 5% of the stellar flux in the near infrared  $K$ -Band. This model allows us to unbiased the distance estimate:  $d = 491 \pm 18$  pc. The linear radius estimate is not biased by the presence of CSE and we found  $R = 67.8 \pm 2.5 R_{\odot}$ .

Our distance is not consistent with the estimation using the Barnes-Evans method: Barnes et al. (2005) found  $d = 590 \pm 42$  pc (Bayesian) and  $d = 573 \pm 8$  pc (least squares). For this work, they used the same set of radial velocities we used. Our estimate is even more inconsistent with the other available interferometric estimate, by Kervella et al. (2004a):  $d = 690 \pm 50$  pc. This later result has been established using an hybrid version of the BW method:



a value of the linear radius is estimated using the Period-Radius relation calibrated using classical Cepheids, not measured from the data. This assumption is questionable, as we noted before, since Y Oph is a low amplitude Cepheid. Kervella et al. (2004a) deduced  $R = 100 \pm 8 R_{\odot}$  from PR relation, whereas we measured  $R = 67.8 \pm 2.5 R_{\odot}$ . Because Y Oph’s measured linear radius is not consistent with the PR relation for classical, fundamental mode Cepheids, it is probably safe to exclude it from further calibrations. Interestingly, Barnes et al. (2005) observationally determined Y Oph’s linear radius to be also slightly larger (2.5 sigma) than what we find:  $R = 92.1 \pm 6.6 R_{\odot}$  (Bayesian) and  $R = 89.5 \pm 1.2 R_{\odot}$  (least squares). They use a surface brightness technique using a visible-near infrared color, such as V-K. This method is biased if the reddening is not well known. If the star is reddened, V magnitudes are increased more than K-band magnitudes. This leads to an underestimated surface brightness, because the star appears redder, thus cooler than it is. The total brightness (estimated from V) is also underestimated. These two underestimates have opposing effects on the estimated angular diameter: an underestimated surface brightness leads to an overestimated angular diameter, whereas an underestimated luminosity leads to an underestimated angular diameter. In the case of a reddening law, the two effects combine and give rise to a larger angular diameter: the surface brightness effect wins over the total luminosity. Based on their angular diameter,  $\theta \approx 1.45$  mas, it appears that Barnes et al. (2005) overestimated Y Oph’s angular size. Among Cepheids brighter than  $m_V = 6.0$ , Y Oph has the strongest B-V color excess,  $E(B - V) = 0.645$  (Ferne et al. 1995a) and one of the highest fraction of polarized light,  $p = 1.34 \pm 0.12$  % (Heiles 2000). Indeed, Y Oph is within the galactic plane: this means that it has a probably a large extinction due to the interstellar medium.

### 3. The non-pulsating yellow super giant $\alpha$ Per

$\alpha$  Per (HR 1017, HD 20902, F5Ib) is among the most luminous non-pulsating stars inside the Cepheids’ instability strip. The Doppler velocity variability has been found to be very weak, of the order of 100 m/s in amplitude (Butler 1998). This amplitude is ten times less than what is observed for the very low amplitude Cepheid Polaris (Hatzes & Cochran 2000).

$\alpha$  Per’s apparent angular size, approximately 3 mas (Nordgren et al. 2001), makes it a perfect candidate for direct center-to-limb darkening detection with CHARA/FLUOR. Following the approach we used for Polaris (Paper II), we observed  $\alpha$  Per using three different baselines, including one sampling the second lobe, in order to measure its CLD strength, but also in order to be able to assess the possible presence of a CSE around this star.

### 3.1. Interferometric observations

If the star is purely a CLD disk, then only two baselines are required to measure the angular diameter and the CLD strength. Observations must take place in the first lobe of the squared visibility profile, in order to set the star’s angular diameter  $\theta$ . The first lobe is defined by  $B\theta_{\text{UD}}/\lambda < 1.22$ . Additional observations should be taken in the second lobe, in particular near the local maximum ( $B\theta/\lambda \sim 3/2$ ), because the strength of the CLD is directly linked to the height of the second lobe. To address the presence of a CSE, observations should be made at a small baseline. Because the CSEs that were found around Cepheids are roughly 3 times larger than the star itself (Paper I and II), we chose a small baseline where  $B\theta/\lambda \sim 1/3$ . As demonstrated by our Polaris measurements, the presence of CSE is expected to weaken the second lobe of visibility curve, mimicking stronger CLD.

FLUOR operates in the near infrared  $K$ -band, with a mean wavelength of  $\lambda_0 \approx 2.13 \mu\text{m}$ . This sets the small, first-lobe and second-lobe baselines at approximately 50, 150 and 220 meters, which are well-matched to CHARA baselines W1-W2 ( $\sim 100$  m), E2-W2 ( $\sim 150$  m) and E2-W1 ( $\sim 250$  m). See Fig. 6 for a graphical representation of the baseline coverage.

The data reduction was performed using the same pipeline as for Y Oph. Squared visibilities were calibrated using a similar strategy we adopted for Y Oph. We used two sets of calibrators: one for the shorter baselines, W1-W2 and E2-W2, and one for the longest baseline, E2-W1 (Tab. 4).

### 3.2. Simple Model

#### 3.2.1. Limb darkened disk

To probe the shape of the measured visibility profile, we first used an analytical model which includes the stellar diameter and a CLD law. Because of its versatility, we adopt here a power law (Hestroffer 1997):  $I(\mu)/I(0) = \mu^\alpha$ , with  $\mu = \cos(\theta)$ , where  $\theta$  is the angle between the stellar surface and the line of sight. The uniform disk diameter case corresponds to  $\alpha = 0.0$ , whereas an increasing value of  $\alpha$  corresponds to a stronger CLD.

All visibility models for this work have been computed taking into account instrumental bandwidth smearing (Aufdenberg et al. 2006). From this two-parameter fit, we deduce a stellar diameter of  $\theta_\alpha = 3.130 \pm 0.007$  mas and a power law coefficient  $\alpha = 0.119 \pm 0.016$ . The fit yields a reduced  $\chi^2 = 1.0$ . There is a strong correlation between the diameter and CLD coefficient: 0.9. This is a well known effect, that a change in CLD induces a change in apparent diameter.

This fit is entirely satisfactory, as the reduced  $\chi^2$  is of the order unity and the residuals of the fit do not show any trend (Fig. 7). We note that this is not the case for Polaris (Paper II). Polaris, with very similar u-v coverage to  $\alpha$  Per, does not follow a simple LD disk model because it is surrounded by a faint CSE.

### 3.2.2. *Hydrostatic models*

We computed a small grid of models which consists of six one-dimensional, spherical, hydrostatic models using the PHOENIX general-purpose stellar and planetary atmosphere code version 13.11; for a description see Hauschildt et al. (1999) and Hauschildt & Baron (1999). The range of effective temperatures and surface gravities is based on a summary of  $\alpha$  Per’s parameters by Evans et al. (1996):

- effective temperatures,  $T_{\text{eff}} = 6150 \text{ K}, 6270 \text{ K}, 6390 \text{ K}$ ;
- $\log(g) = 1.4, 1.7$ ;
- radius,  $R = 3.92 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}$ ;
- depth-independent micro-turbulence,  $\xi = 4.0 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ;
- mixing-length to pressure scale ratio, 1.5;
- solar elemental abundance LTE atomic and molecular line blanketing, typically  $10^6$  atomic lines and  $3 \times 10^5$  molecular lines dynamically selected at run time;
- non-LTE line blanketing of H I (30 levels, 435 bound-bound transitions), He I (19 levels, 171 bound-bound transitions), and He II (10 levels, 45 bound-bound transitions);
- boundary conditions: outer pressure,  $10^{-4} \text{ dynes cm}^{-2}$ , extinction optical depth at  $1.2 \mu\text{m}$ : outer  $10^{-10}$ , inner  $10^2$ .

For this grid of models the atmospheric structure is computed at 50 radial shells (depths) and the radiative transfer is computed along 50 rays tangent to these shells and 14 additional rays which impact the innermost shell, the so-called core-intersecting rays. The intersection of the rays with the outermost radial shell describes a center-to-limb intensity profile with 64 angular points.

Power law fits to the hydrostatic model visibilities range from  $\alpha = 0.132$  to  $\alpha = 0.137$  (Tab. 6), which correspond to 0.8 to 1.1 sigma above the value we measured. Our measured

CLD is below that predicted by the the models, or in other words the predicted darkening is slightly overestimated.

### 3.3. Possible presence of CSE

Firstly, we employ the CSE model used for Cepheids (Paper I, Paper II). This model is purely geometrical and it consists of a limb darkened disk surrounded by a faint CSE whose two-dimensional geometric projection (on the sky) is modeled by a ring. The ring parameters consist of the angular diameter, width and flux ratio with respect to the star ( $F_s/F_\star$ ). We adopt the same geometry found for Cepheids: a ring with a diameter equal to 2.6 times the stellar diameter (Paper II) with no dependency with respect to the width (fixed to a small fraction of the CSE angular diameter, say 1/5).

This model restriction is justified because testing the agreement between a generic CSE model and interferometric data requires a complete angular resolution coverage, from very short to very large baselines. Though our  $\alpha$  Per data set is diverse regarding the baseline coverage, we lack a very short baseline ( $B \sim 50$  m) which was not available at that time at the CHARA Array.

The simplest fit consists in adjusting the geometrical scale: the angular size ratio between the CSE and the star is fixed. This yields a reduced  $\chi^2$  of 3, compared to 1.1 for a hydrostatic LD and 1.0 for an adjusted CLD law (Tab. 7).

We can force the data to fit a CSE model by relaxing the CLD of the star or the CSE flux ratio. A fit of the size of the star and the brightness of the CSE leads to a reduced  $\chi^2$  of 1.4 and results in a very small flux ratio between the CSE and the star of  $0.0006 \pm 0.0026$ , which provides an upper limit for the CSE flux of 0.26% (compared to 1.5% for Polaris and  $\delta$  Cep for example, and 5% for Y Oph). On the other hand, forcing the flux ratio to match that for Cepheids with CSEs and leaving the CLD free leads to a reduced  $\chi^2$  of 1.4 but also to a highly unrealistic  $\alpha = 0.066 \pm 0.004$  (Tab. 7 and Fig. 7).

This leads to the conclusion that the presence of a CSE around  $\alpha$  Per similar to the measured Cepheid CSE is highly improbable. As shown above, the measured CLD is slightly weaker (1 sigma) than one predicted by model atmospheres. A compatible CSE model exists if the CLD is actually even weaker but in unrealistic proportions.

### 3.4. Conclusion

The observed  $\alpha$  Per visibilities are not compatible with the presence of a CSE similar to that detected around Cepheids. The data are well explained by an adjusted center-to-limb darkening. The strength of this CLD is compatible with the hydrostatic model within one sigma.

## 4. Discussion

Using the interferometric Baade-Wesselink method, we determined the distance to the low amplitude Cepheid Y Oph to be  $d = 491 \pm 18$  pc. This distance has been unbiased from the presence of the circumstellar envelope. This bias was found to be of the order of 4% for our particular angular resolution and the amount of CSE we measured. Y Oph’s average linear diameter has also been estimated to be  $R = 67.8 \pm 2.5 R_{\odot}$ . This latter quantity is intrinsically unbiased by the center-to-limb darkening or the presence of a circumstellar envelope. This value is found to be substantially lower, almost 4 sigmas, than the Period-Radius relation prediction:  $R = 100 \pm 8 R_{\odot}$ . Among other peculiarities, we found a very large phase shift between radial velocity measurements and interferometric measurements:  $\Delta\phi = -0.074 \pm 0.005$ , which corresponds to more than one day. For these reasons, we think Y Oph should be excluded from future calibrations of popular relations for classical Cepheids, such as Period-Radius, Period-Luminosity relations.

So far, the four Cepheids we looked at have a CSE:  $\ell$  Car (Paper I), Polaris,  $\delta$  Cep (Paper II) and Y Oph (this work). On the other hand, we have presented here similar observations of  $\alpha$  Per, a non-pulsating supergiant inside the instability strip, which provides no evidence for a circumstellar envelope. This non detection reinforces the confidence we have in our CSE detection technique and draws more attention to a pulsation driven mass loss mechanism.

Interestingly, there seems to be a correlation between the period and the CSE flux ratio in the  $K$ -Band: short-period Cepheids seem to have a fainter CSE compared to longer-period Cepheids (Tab. 8). Cepheids with long periods have higher masses and larger radii, thus, if we assume that the CSE  $K$ -Band brightness is an indicator of the mass loss rate, this would mean that heavier stars experience higher mass loss rates. This is of prime importance in the context of calibrating relations between Cepheids’ fundamental parameters with respect to their pulsation periods. If CSEs have some effects on the observational estimation of these fundamental parameters (luminosity, mass, radius, etc.), a correlation between the period and the relative flux of the CSE can lead to a biased calibration.

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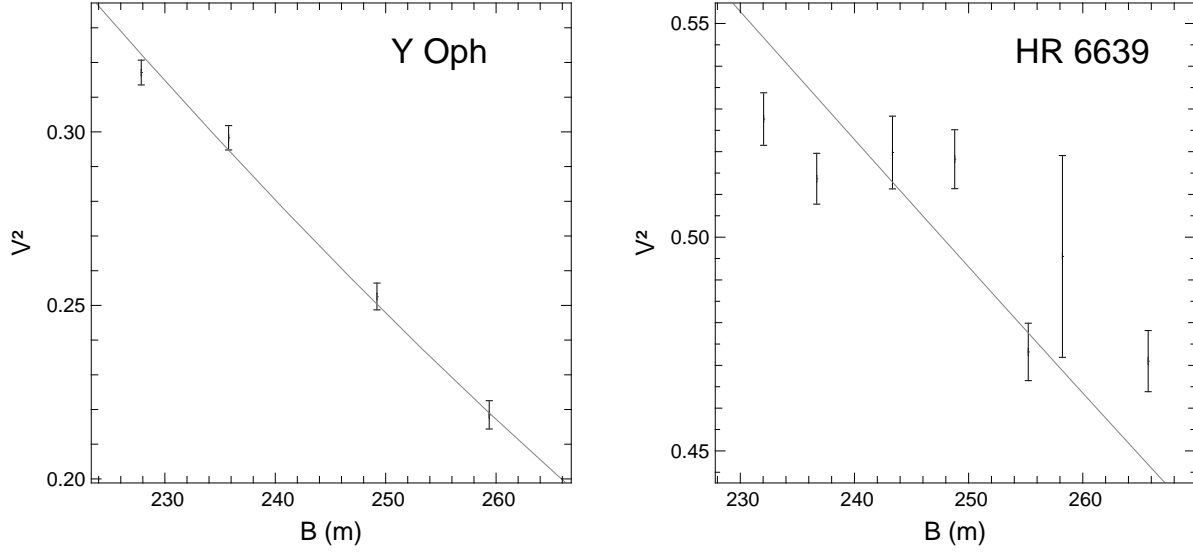


Fig. 1.— Evidence that calibrator HR 6639 is probably a binary star. Calibrated squared visibility as a function of baseline for UT 2006/07/10. Left is Y Oph and right is HR 6639. The interferometric efficiency was supposed constant during the night and established using HR 7809 and  $\rho$  Aql with a reduced  $\chi^2$  of 1.3. A UD fit, shown as a continuous line, works for Y Oph ( $\chi_r^2 = 0.6$ ) whereas it fails for HR 6639 ( $\chi_r^2 = 7.2$ ). This could be the sign that HR 6639 has a faint companion: the visibility variation has a 3-5% amplitude, which corresponds to a magnitude difference of 3 to 4 between the main star and its companion.

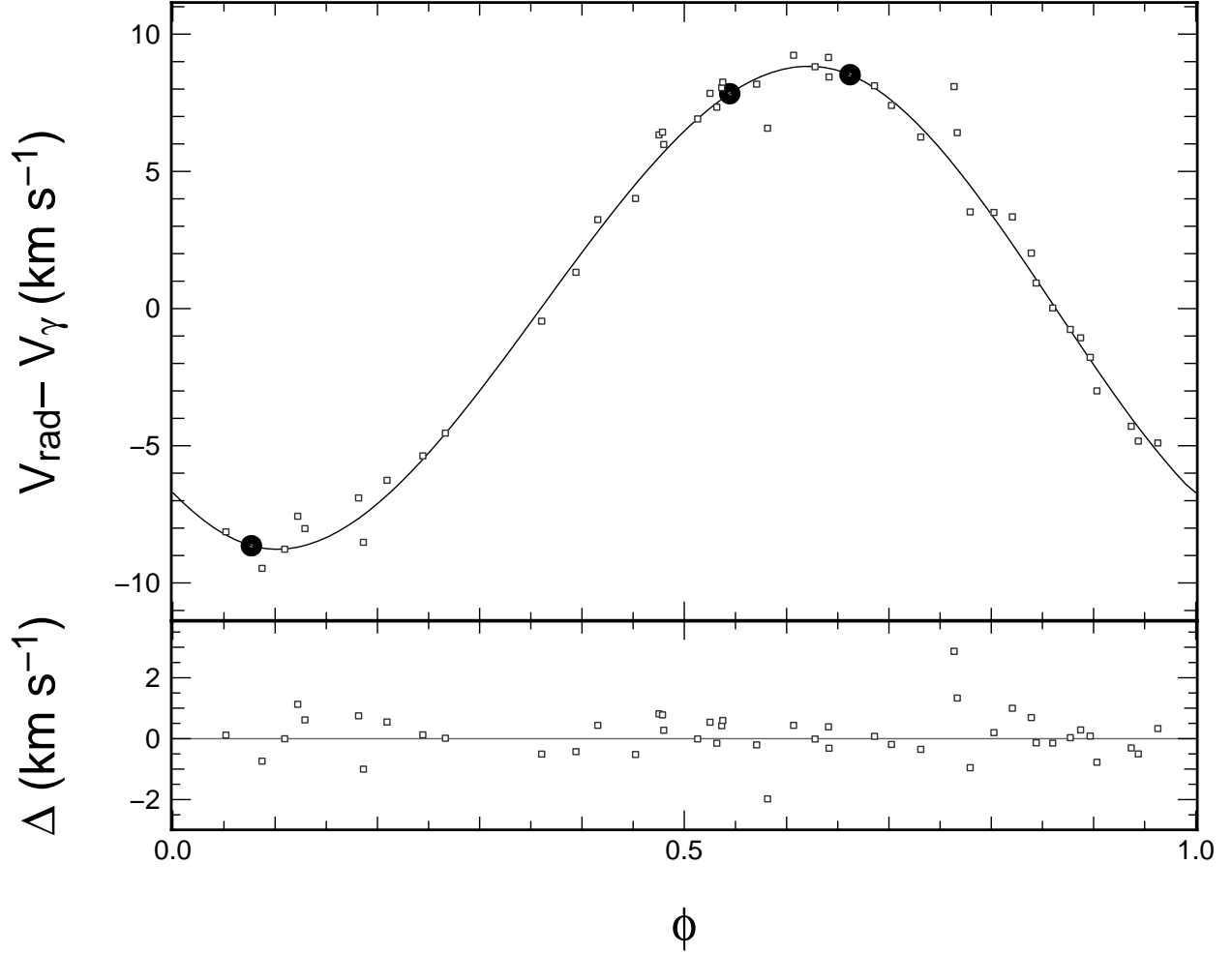


Fig. 2.— Y Oph: Radial velocities from Gorynya et al. (1998). The continuous line is the periodic spline function defined by 3 adjustable floating nodes (large filled circles). The systematic velocity,  $V_{\gamma} = -7.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , has been evaluated using the interpolation function and removed. The lower panel displays the residuals of the fit.

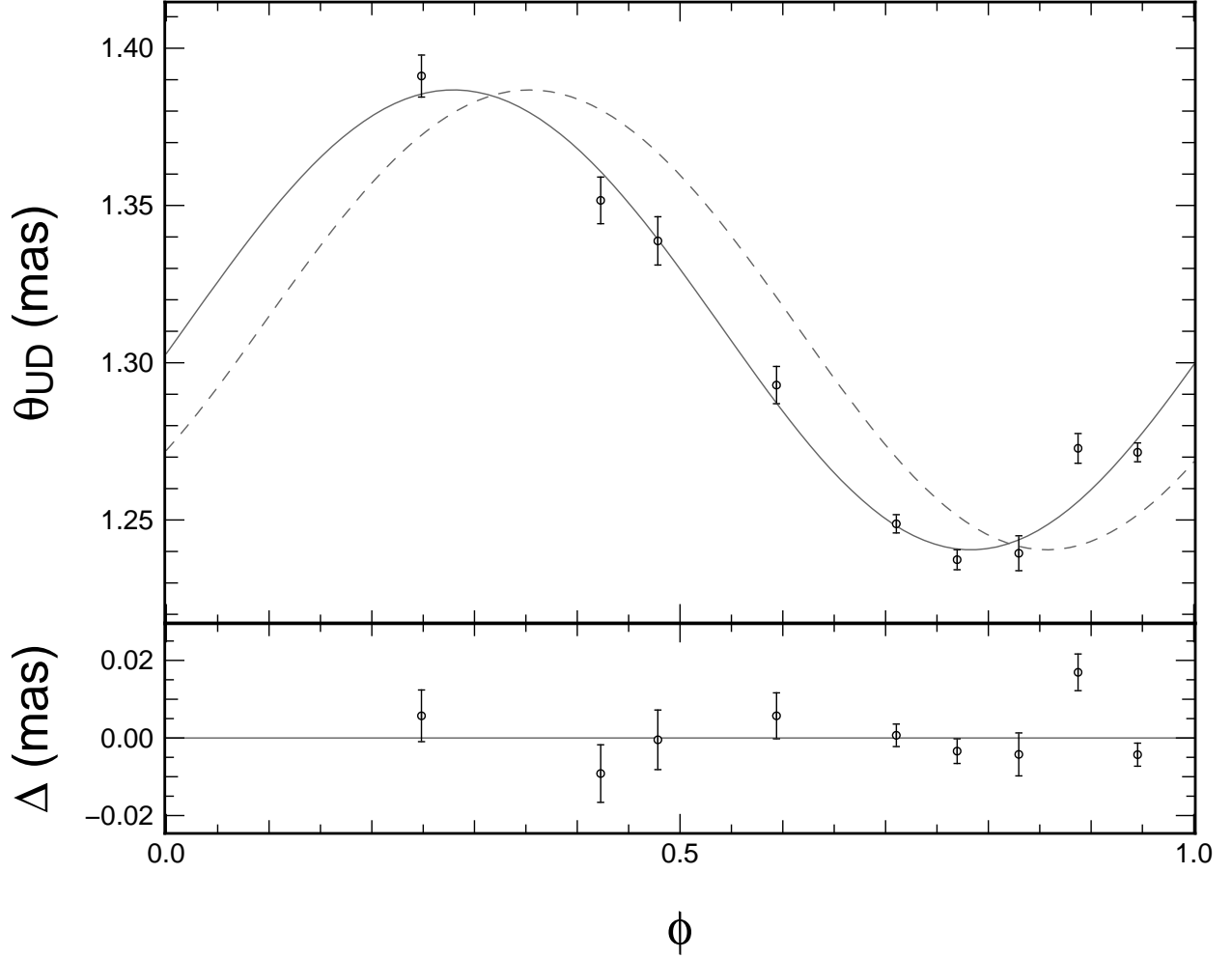


Fig. 3.— Y Oph: angular diameter variations. Upper panel: CHARA/FLUOR uniform disk angular diameters as a function of phase. Each data point corresponds to a given night, which contains several individual squared visibility measurements (Tab. 3). The solid line is the integration of the radial velocity (Fig. 2) with distance, average angular diameter and phase shift adjusted. The dashed line has a phase shift set to zero. The lower panel shows the residuals to the continuous line.

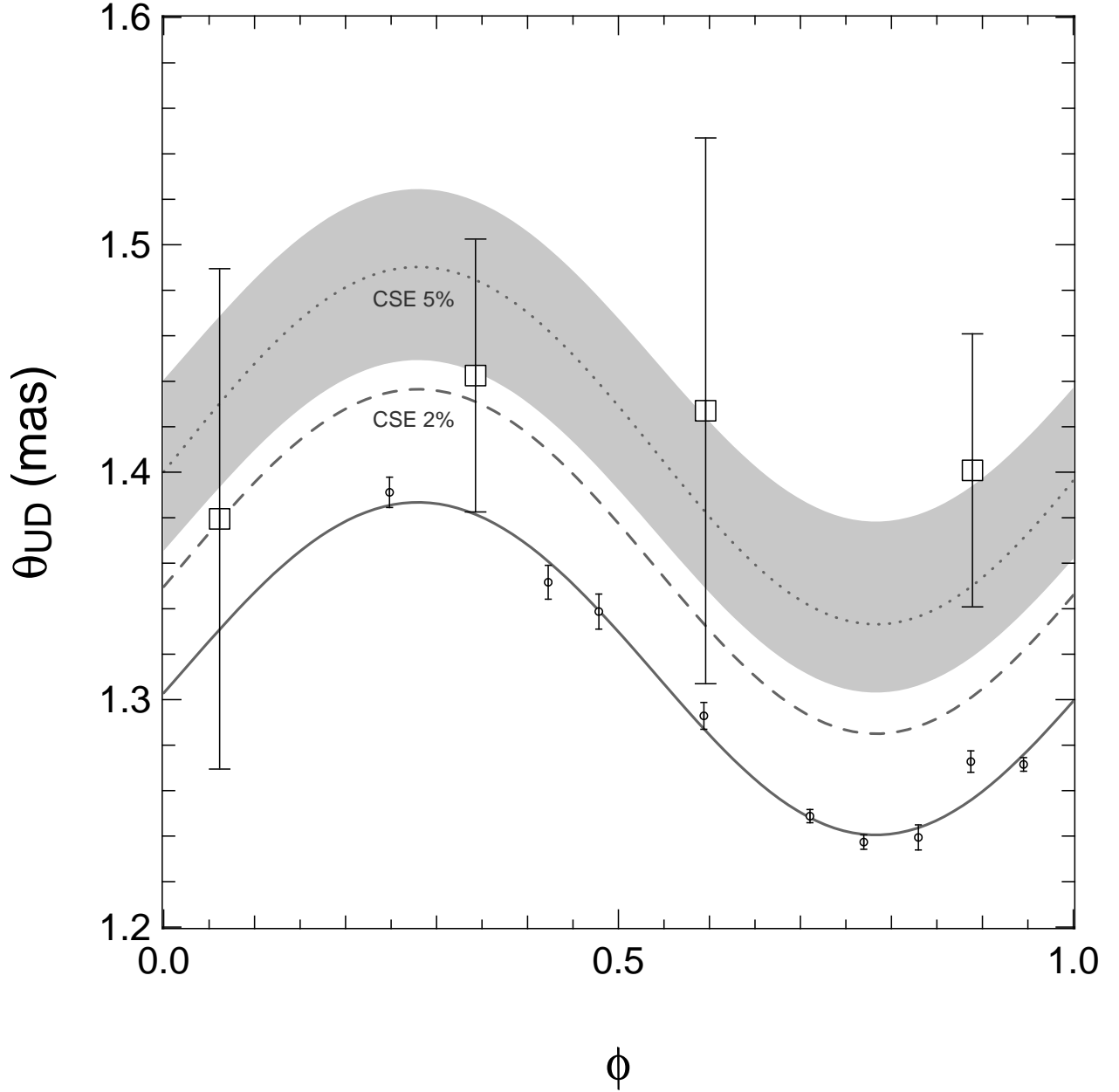


Fig. 4.— Y Oph: Comparison between CHARA/FLUOR and VLT/VINCI observations. Uniform disk angular diameter as a function of phase. Small data points (with small error bars) and lower continuous line: CHARA/FLUOR observations and distance fit. Large open squares: VLT/VINCI observations. The distance fit and its uncertainty are represented by the shaded band. Dashed and dotted lines: VLT/VINCI expected biased observations based on CHARA/FLUOR and our CSE model with a flux ratio of 2% (dashed) and 5% (dotted).

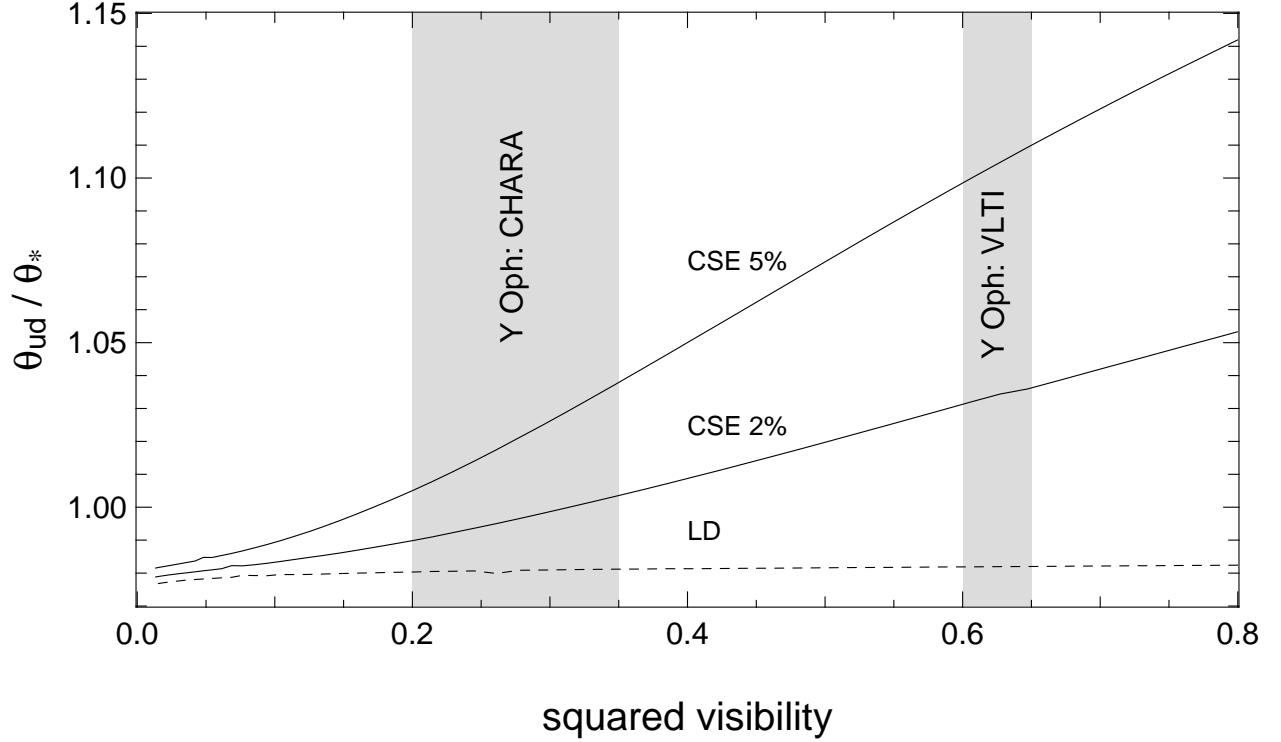


Fig. 5.— Y Oph: angular diameter correction factor. We plot here  $\theta_{UD}/\theta_*$  for three different Cepheid models as a function of observed squared visibility (first lobe): the dashed line is a simple limb darkened disk with the appropriate CLD strength; the continuous line is a similar LD disk surrounded by a CSE with a 2%  $K$ -band flux (short period: Polaris and  $\delta$  Cep, see Paper II) and 5% (long period:  $\ell$  Car, see paper I). Note that, in the presence of CSE, the bias is stronger at large visibilities (hence smaller angular resolution). The shaded regions represents near infrared Y Oph observations: from CHARA (this work) and the VLTI (Kervella et al. 2004a).

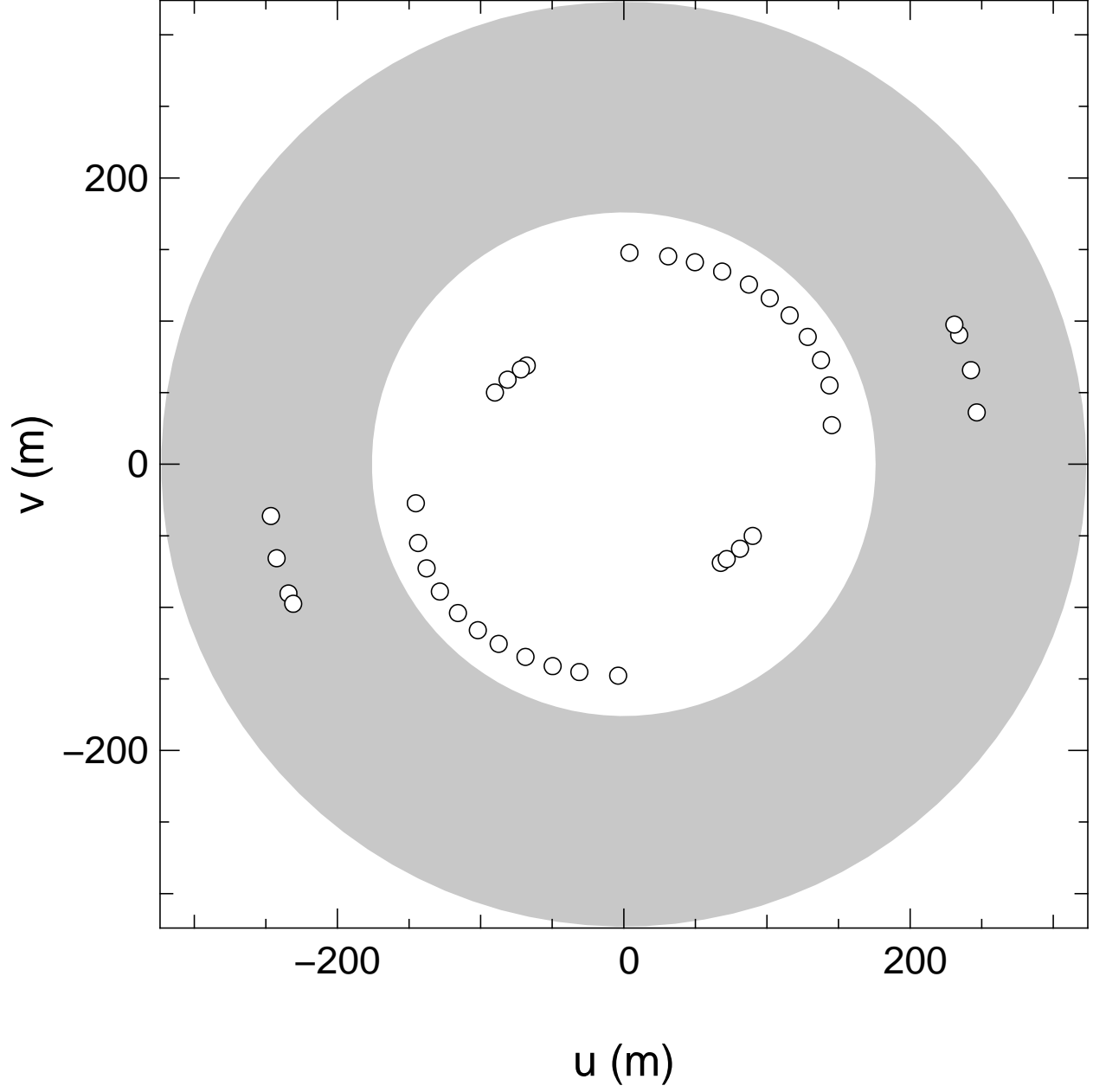


Fig. 6.—  $\alpha$  Per. Projected baselines, in meters. North is up East is right. The shaded area corresponds to the squared visibility’s second lobe. The baselines are W1-W2, E2-W2 and E2-W1, from the shortest to the longest.

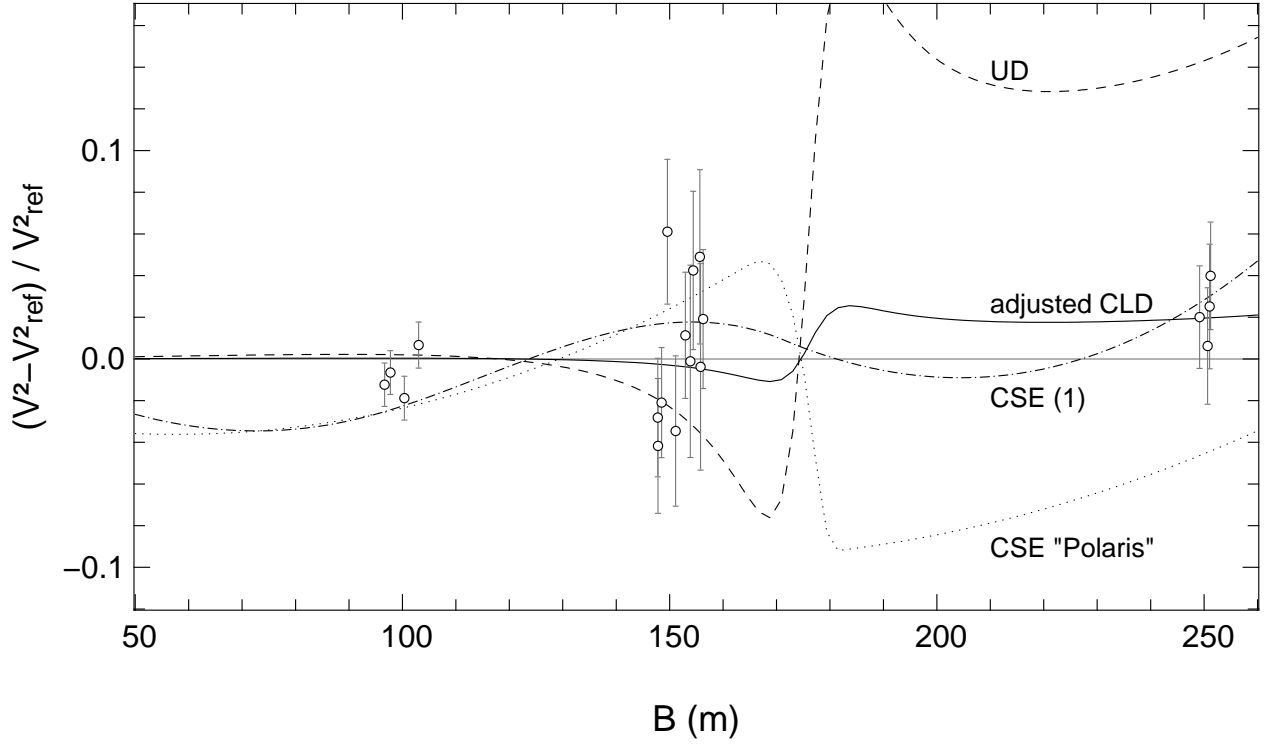


Fig. 7.—  $\alpha$  Per squared visibility models: UD, adjusted CLD, PHOENIX and 2 different CSE models are plotted here as the residuals to the PHOENIX CLD with respect to baseline. The common point at  $B \approx 175$  m is the first minimum of the visibility function. The top of the second lobe is reached for  $B \approx 230$  m. See Tab. 7 for parameters and reduced  $\chi^2$  of each model.



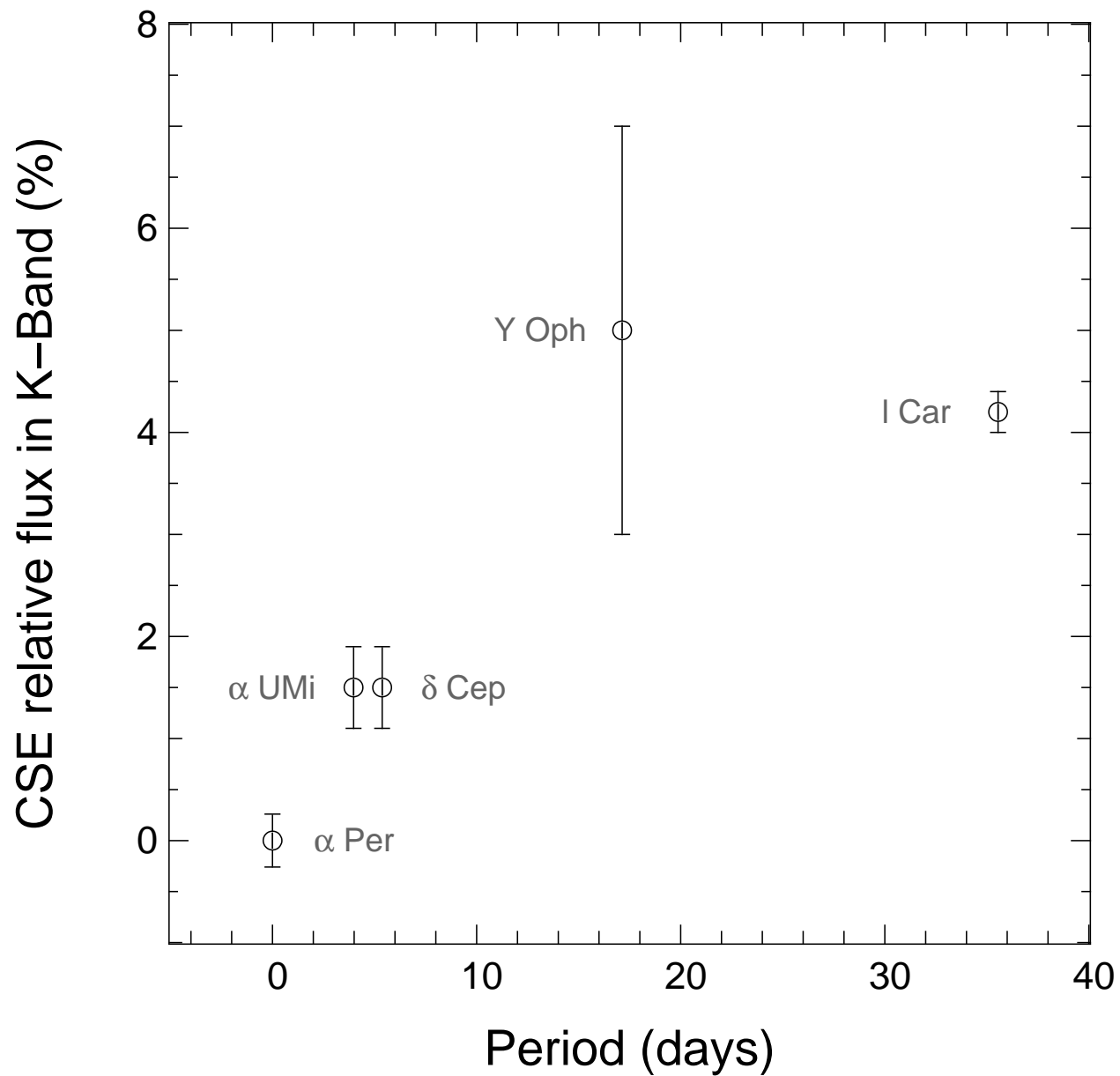


Fig. 8.— measured relative  $K$ -band CSE fluxes (in percent) around Cepheids, as a function of the pulsation period (in days). The non-pulsating yellow supergiant  $\alpha$  Per is plotted with  $P=0$ .

Table 1. Y Oph calibrators.

Star	S.T.	UD Diam. (mas)	Notes
HD 153033	K5III	$1.100 \pm 0.015$	
HD 175583	K2III	$1.021 \pm 0.014$	
HR 6639	K0III	$0.904 \pm 0.012$	rejected
HR 7809	K1III	$1.055 \pm 0.015$	
$\rho$ Aql	A2V	$0.370 \pm 0.005$	not in M05

Note. — “S.T.” stands for spectral type. Uniform Disk diameters, given in mas, are only intended for computing the expected squared visibility in the  $K$ -band. All stars but  $\rho$  Aql are from M05 catalog (Mérand et al. 2005a). Refer to text for an explanation why HR 6639 has been rejected.

Table 2. Journal of observations: Y Oph.

MJD-53900	B (m)	P.A. (deg)	$V^2$
18.260	229.808	63.540	$0.2348 \pm 0.0061$
18.296	215.049	71.242	$0.2823 \pm 0.0065$
18.321	207.247	77.913	$0.3030 \pm 0.0075$
21.245	232.792	62.353	$0.2511 \pm 0.0065$
21.283	216.576	70.243	$0.2954 \pm 0.0085$
21.309	208.313	76.765	$0.3194 \pm 0.0085$
22.212	245.894	58.023	$0.2092 \pm 0.0071$
22.234	236.338	61.050	$0.2352 \pm 0.0078$
22.251	228.941	63.902	$0.2615 \pm 0.0085$
24.188	253.988	55.914	$0.2108 \pm 0.0062$
24.212	243.641	58.680	$0.2427 \pm 0.0060$
24.231	235.388	61.389	$0.2634 \pm 0.0065$
26.168	259.377	54.714	$0.2185 \pm 0.0041$
26.194	249.210	57.113	$0.2526 \pm 0.0039$
26.224	235.772	61.251	$0.2983 \pm 0.0034$
26.242	227.859	64.367	$0.3171 \pm 0.0035$
27.194	247.788	57.495	$0.2650 \pm 0.0040$
27.211	240.340	59.704	$0.2854 \pm 0.0038$
27.228	232.806	62.348	$0.3177 \pm 0.0045$
27.250	223.415	66.429	$0.3385 \pm 0.0045$
28.241	225.978	65.207	$0.3332 \pm 0.0045$
28.257	219.413	68.547	$0.3629 \pm 0.0061$
29.219	234.329	61.775	$0.2857 \pm 0.0049$
29.237	226.405	65.012	$0.3148 \pm 0.0053$
29.253	219.709	68.380	$0.3320 \pm 0.0054$
30.192	245.267	58.203	$0.2510 \pm 0.0035$
30.216	234.738	61.624	$0.2893 \pm 0.0041$
30.235	226.418	65.007	$0.3112 \pm 0.0044$
30.244	222.544	66.866	$0.3226 \pm 0.0046$
30.261	215.937	70.653	$0.3462 \pm 0.0048$

Table 2—Continued

MJD-53900	B	P.A.	$V^2$
	(m)	(deg)	

Note. — Date of observation (modified julian day), telescope projected separation (m), baseline projection angle (degrees) and squared visibility

Table 3. Y Oph angular diameters.

MJD-53900	$\phi$	$N_{\text{obs.}}$ (m)	B (mas)	$\theta_{\text{UD}}$	$\chi^2$
18.292	0.248	3	207-230	$1.3912 \pm 0.0067$	0.55
21.279	0.423	3	208-233	$1.3516 \pm 0.0074$	1.06
22.232	0.478	3	229-246	$1.3387 \pm 0.0077$	0.05
24.210	0.594	3	235-254	$1.2929 \pm 0.0059$	0.19
26.207	0.710	4	228-259	$1.2488 \pm 0.0029$	0.61
27.221	0.770	4	223-248	$1.2374 \pm 0.0032$	0.76
28.249	0.830	2	219-226	$1.2394 \pm 0.0055$	0.30
29.237	0.887	3	220-234	$1.2728 \pm 0.0047$	0.26
30.229	0.945	5	216-245	$1.2715 \pm 0.0030$	0.56

Note. — Data points have been reduced to one uniform disk diameter per night. Average date of observation (modified julian day), pulsation phase, number of calibrated  $V^2$ , projected baseline range, uniform disk angular diameter and reduced  $\chi^2$ .

Table 4.  $\alpha$  Per calibrators.

Name	S.T.	UD Diam. (mas)	Baselines
HD 18970	G9.5III	$1.551 \pm 0.021$	W1-W2, E2-W2
HD 20762	K0II-III	$0.881 \pm 0.012$	E2-W1
HD 22427	K2III-IV	$0.913 \pm 0.013$	E2-W1
HD 31579	K3III	$1.517 \pm 0.021$	W1-W2, E2-W2
HD 214995	K0III	$0.947 \pm 0.013$	W1-W2

Note. — “S.T.” stands for spectral type. Uniform Disk diameters, given in mas, are only intended for computing the expected squared visibility in the  $K$ -band. These stars come from our catalog of interferometric calibrators (Mérand et al. 2005a)

Table 5. Journal of observations:  $\alpha$  Per.

MJD-54000	B (m)	P.A. (deg)	$V^2$
46.281	147.82	79.37	$0.02350 \pm 0.00075$
46.321	153.87	69.04	$0.01368 \pm 0.00067$
46.347	155.79	62.17	$0.01093 \pm 0.00060$
46.372	156.27	55.30	$0.01134 \pm 0.00039$
46.398	155.65	48.10	$0.01197 \pm 0.00051$
46.421	154.41	41.32	$0.01367 \pm 0.00052$
46.442	152.94	34.84	$0.01581 \pm 0.00045$
46.466	151.13	27.03	$0.01824 \pm 0.00064$
46.488	149.58	19.40	$0.02167 \pm 0.00071$
46.510	148.49	12.06	$0.02250 \pm 0.00058$
46.539	147.77	1.53	$0.02370 \pm 0.00070$
47.225	96.66	-44.51	$0.27974 \pm 0.00282$
47.233	97.75	-47.34	$0.27321 \pm 0.00274$
47.252	100.37	-53.97	$0.24858 \pm 0.00258$
47.274	103.03	-60.91	$0.23529 \pm 0.00242$
47.327	249.17	81.65	$0.01363 \pm 0.00032$
47.352	251.22	74.84	$0.01340 \pm 0.00032$
47.374	251.04	68.91	$0.01330 \pm 0.00035$
47.380	250.67	67.10	$0.01316 \pm 0.00035$

Note. — Date of observation (modified julian day), telescope projected separation, baseline projection angle and squared visibility

Table 6.  $\alpha$  Per PHOENIX models.

$T_{\text{eff}}$ (K)	$\log g = 1.4$	$\log g = 1.7$
6150	0.137	0.136
6270	0.135	0.134
6390	0.133	0.132

Note. — Models tabulated for different effective temperatures and surface gravities. The  $K$ -band CLD is condensed into a power law coefficient  $\alpha$ :  $I(\mu) \propto \mu^\alpha$ .



Table 7. Models for  $\alpha$  Per.

Model	$\theta_\star$ (mas)	$\alpha$	$F_s/F_\star$ (%)	$\chi_r^2$
UD	$3.080_{\pm 0.004}$	0.000	-	5.9
PHOENIX CLD	$3.137_{\pm 0.004}$	0.135	-	1.1
adjusted CLD	$3.130_{\pm 0.007}$	$0.119_{\pm 0.016}$	-	1.0
CSE “Polaris”	$3.086_{\pm 0.007}$	0.135	1.5	3.0
CSE (1)	$3.048_{\pm 0.007}$	$0.066_{\pm 0.004}$	1.5	1.4
CSE (2)	$3.095_{\pm 0.010}$	0.135	$0.06_{\pm 0.26}$	1.4

Note. — The parameters are:  $\theta_\star$  the stellar angular diameter, the CLD power law coefficient  $\alpha$  and, if relevant, the brightness ratio between the CSE and the star  $F_s/F_\star$ . The first line is the uniform disk diameter, the second one expected CLD from the PHOENIX model, the third one is the adjusted CLD. The fourth line is a scaled Polaris CSE model (Paper II). The last two lines are attempts to force a CSE model to the data. Lower script are uncertainties, the absence of lower script means that the parameter is fixed

Table 8. Relative flux in  $K$ -Band for the CSE discovered around Cepheids and the non pulsating  $\alpha$  Per.

Star	Period (d)	CSE flux (%)
$\alpha$ UMi	3.97	$1.5 \pm 0.4$
$\delta$ Cep	5.37	$1.5 \pm 0.4$
Y Oph	17.13	$5.0 \pm 2.0$
$\ell$ Car	35.55	$4.2 \pm 0.2$
$\alpha$ Per	-	$< 0.26$